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AUTHOR Geering, Adrian D.
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ABSTRACT

Leadership theories are reviewed, and ways that college administrators can approach leadership are suggested. After defining leadership and distinguishing it from administration and management, three different approaches to leadership are reviewed: the trait approach, the behavioral approach, and the situational approach. Some emerging views of leadership concern the relationship of the leader to the larger social structure and managing conflict by integrative measures to produce synergy. An integrative model of leadership developed by Ivancevich and others is described. Successful application of this model to postsecondary institutions will involve the leader's ability to diagnose and evaluate forces in the leader, forces in the subordinates, and forces in the situation. Luthans' and Stewart's contingency model and factors that influence leadership in postsecondary institutions are examined. The following generalizations about leadership are proposed: leadership is a shared process and a group function, being the product of interaction; leadership does not result from position or status, but rather how a person behaves in an organization; leadership positively changes organizational effectiveness and group activity; leadership implies change; leadership cannot be structured in advance; and most groups have more than one person occupying the leadership role. (SW)

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AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP THEORY AND ITS APPLICATION TO HIGHER EDUCATION

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ADRIAN D. GEERING, Ph.D.

ADELAIDE COLLEGE OF THE ARTS AND EDUCATION

AUSTRALIA

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SYNOPSIS

In this paper the different ways that administrators can approach leadership will be examined. First, the paper will draw a distinction between the terms leadership, administration, and management. Second, a large part of the paper will examine the three major approaches to leadership--the trait approach, the behavioral approach and the situational approach. Third, examples of several kinds of theories will be discussed. Fourth, some emerging views of leadership will be considered. Fifth, an integrative model of leadership will be presented. Sixth, an attempt will be made to apply these findings to post-secondary educational institutions. Last, some concluding comments will be made.

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LEADERSHIP

I. Introduction--Leadership Defined

Leadership has been described as a "slippery phenomenon." It is probably one of the most researched but least understood aspects of human behavior. As Katz and Kahn claim, "Among social scientists who emphasize the concept of leadership, there is no close agreement on conceptual definition or even on the theoretical significance of leadership processes."[1] Even in a publication which reviewed research related to human behavior, most of the propositions advanced concerning leadership were based on research in small face-to-face groups.[2] The propositions relating to leadership in organizations did not seem to be based on much research.[3]

Miller has pointed out that a hypothesis or proposition which does not apply to two or more levels of systems does not have much generality.[4] He listed 165 cross-level hypotheses which could reasonably be supported by available research. He did not list a single cross-level hypothesis on leadership. Hence, until more cross-level research is carried out, the applicability of the conclusions concerning leadership in small groups, to leadership in large-scale, complex, bureaucratic, hierarchical organizations,

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[1] D. Katz and R. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966), pp. 300-301.

[2] B. Berelson and G. Steiner, Human Behavior: An Inventory of Scientific Findings (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1964), pp. 341-346.

[3] Ibid., pp. 372-377.

[4] J. G. Miller, "Living Systems: Cross Level Hypotheses," Behavioral Science, 10, No. 4, 1965.

can be questioned. The writer acknowledges that this will be a limitation in this paper on leadership.

Much of the literature on leadership represents an attempt to study the leader as an entity possessed of characteristic traits and occupying rather inertly, a status position relative to other individuals who are not too clearly related to him. This view holds that: the world is roughly divided into two groups--leaders and followers; leaders are a minority group and it is their duty to inspire, challenge, motivate and influence their followers to achieve the goals set for them.

On the other hand, realizing that psychological factors were insufficient alone to account for this complex phenomenon, many researchers have shifted the focus of their study from the individual to a consideration of the group and organizational roles and relationships. As Applewhite claims: "Leadership is the ability to initiate group goals within the organizational structure."[5]

In the formal organization, leadership may be either formal or informal. Formal leadership is that which the organizational structure confers and the incumbent may be fortunate enough to be a leader in his own right which will make his role far more effective. In contrast, informal leadership is largely a psychological activity, a matter of personality traits.

At this juncture, perhaps it will be appropriate to ask: What is leadership? Leadership is a very broad concept and thus a vast number of interpretations and definitions could be listed. Ross and Hendry state that an adequate definition of leadership involves the combination of three

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[5]P. B. Applewhite, Organizational Behavior (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1965), p. 111.

concepts: the characteristics of the leader, the nature of the group, and its task.[6] Bass defines leadership as "an interaction where one member of a group reached his goal of changing other members' behavior."[7] Blau and Scott define leadership as follows: "It is the strategy in which a superior furnishes services that obligate subordinates to him."[8] To Halpin, the term leadership has a value connotation--leadership is valued behavior. He says: "In ordinary parlance the term leadership is used in an evaluation sense. To say that a man displays leadership implies that this is good or effective leadership."[9] Katz and Kahn simply state that:

> Leadership appears in social science literature with three major meanings, as the attribute of a position, as the characteristic of a person, and as a category of behavior. . . .
>
> It is a relational concept implying two terms: the influencing agent and the persons influenced.[10]

Stogdill defines leadership as "A process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its task of goal setting and goal achievement."[11]

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[6] M. G. Ross and G. E. Hendry, New Understandings of Leadership (New York: Association Press, 1957), p. 31.

[7] B. M. Bass, Leadership, Psychology and Organizational Behavior (New York: Harper, 1960), p. 132.

[8] P. M. Blau and W. R. Scott, Formal Organizations (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1963), p. 142.

[9] A. W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago: Midwest Administrative Center, University of Chicago, 1960), p. 12.

[10] Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 301.

[11] R. Stogdill, "Definitions of Leadership," Handbook of Leadership (New York: Free Press, 1974), pp. 7-16.

Lipham[12] states that leadership can only be defined in terms of the organization and adopts Hemphill's definition, viz: ". . . leadership is the initiation of a new structure of procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals or objectives."[13] Such a random selection of definitions not only emphasizes the lack of consensus about the phenomenon of leadership, but also that many have a common component often called "influence." Bass,[14] Katz and Kahn,[15] Terry,[16] and Koontz and O'Donnell,[17] Kelly,[18] Hollander,[19] and Shaw[20] also regard influence as being central of the leadership process. Ivancevich's comment is representative: "Leadership is the relationship between two or more people in which one attempts to influence the other toward the accomplishment of some goal or goals."[21]

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[12] J. M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," in D. E. Griffiths (ed.), Behavioral Science and Administration, The 63rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 122.

[13] J. M. Hemphill, "Administration as Problem Solving," in A. W. Halpin, Administrative Theory in Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), p. 98.

[14] Bass, op. cit., p. 89.

[15] Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 309.

[16] G. R. Terry, Principles of Management (Homewood, Illinois: R. D. Irwin, 1960), p. 493.

[17] H. Koontz and C. O'Donnell, Principles of Management (New York: McGraw Hill, 1968), p. 435.

[18] J. Kelly, Organizational Behavior (Homewood, Illinois: Richard Irwin, Inc. and The Dorsey Press, 1969), p. 141.

[19] E. P. Hollander, Leadership Dynamics (New York: The Free Press, 1978), pp. 1-5.

[20] M. E. Shaw, Group Dynamics (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1976), p. 447.

[21] J. M. Ivancevich, Andrew Szilagyi, and Marc Wallace, Organizational Behavior and Performance (Santa Monica, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1977), p. 273.

The discussion so far has focused on one of the foundations of leadership--namely, the aspect of influence. The source of influence has not been considered; namely the power held by an individual to influence another's behavior.

French and Raven have proposed a taxonomy of power which describes the different forces of power a leader may possess.[22] They include the following: legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, and referent power. In analyzing these five power bases, a further distinction may be made--namely that power is based on organizational position and individual characteristics. The first three kinds of power can be considered in terms of the power that an organization endows; whereas the last two kinds of power are related to personal characteristics.

It follows that the amount of influence any leader has will be directly related to organizational and individual power.

So leadership is a process and a role by which A causes B to behave in a desired manner, through the use of personal power and positional power in an organizational setting.

Shartle[23] outlined a number of important aspects of leadership process:

(1) That positive and successful influence upon other is an important ingredient,

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[22] J. R. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power" in D. Cartwright and A. F. Zander (eds.), Group Dynamics, 2nd ed. (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960), pp. 607-623.

[23] C. L. Shartle, "Studies in Leadership by Interdisciplinary Methods," in A. G. Grace (ed), Leadership in American Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 32.

(2) That position and status in an organization is important because it enables higher influence potential,

(3) That leadership is the behavior of an elected and not an appointed person, and

(4) That activity in setting or achieving goals must occur.

In short, a leader is a person who uses positional status to exercise influence attempts in interactions with others to achieve shared goals. A lot of writers would agree with the definition that leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. As Shartle states in another place, "a leadership act is one which results in others acting or responding in a shared direction. Leadership is therefore judged in terms of what others do."[24]

From the definition above, leadership is viewed as a function of a leader, a group and the situation. Hence, if leadership then is a group function, how does it relate to management, to authority, and to administration, terms which are often used synonomously with the term leadership.

At the outset, it is important to realize that all of these terms, although related, refer to separate functions of a different nature altogether. Filley and House define management as "a process, mental and physical whereby subordinates are brought to execute prescribed formal duties, and to accomplish certain given objectives."[25] This definition conceives of the manager as being a person engaging in a variety of activities in relation to other organizational members over whom he

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[24] C. L. Shartle, Executive Performance and Leadership (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1956), p. 106.

[25] A. C. Filley and R. J. House, Managerial Process and Organizational Behavior (USE: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1969), p. 391.

exercises formal authority--thus the formal organization structure is important. On the other hand, they define leadership as "a process whereby one person exerts social influence over the members of a group."[26]

So, according to this definition a leader is one with "power" over others and exercises this power for the purpose of influencing their behavior. The source of the power is not stipulated. In contrast to the manager, the leader is more inclined to exercise influence and not authority, the basis for this influence being found more in the personality of the person than in the position held. In French and Raven's terms, a leader is more inclined to use referent and expert power rather than legitmate power. Furthermore, in the leadership situation, the relationship between the leader and group members is one more of equality.

Other writers such as Hodge and Johnson[27] and Hicks and Gullet[28] also support the point of view. Hodge and Johnson's comment is representative:

> Leadership is basically the ability to shape the attitudes and behavior of others whether in formal or informal situations.
>
> Management, on the other hand, is the formal task of decision and command. It is entirely possible for an individual to hold a formal position of management and not be a leader because he is unable to use his authority and influence successfully.[29]

In contrast, authority in the Weberian sense, is legitimate power which is vested in a particular position or person and is accepted as appropriate

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[26] Ibid., p. 391.

[27] B. J. Hodge and H. J. Johnson, Management and Organizational Behavior: A Multi-Dimensional Approach (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1970).

[28] H. G. Hicks and R. G. Gullett, The Management of Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976), pp. 446-465.

[29] Hodge and Johnson, op. cit., p. 250.

by those over whom it is wielded and by the wielder, i.e., the person in a position of authority uses such authority to ensure that organizational members conform to organizational requirements.[30] On the other hand, a person exercising a leadership function uses group expectations to achieve common goals. Blau and Scott state this succinctly by distinguishing between formal authority and informal authority (leadership). They state that:

> Authority has been earlier defined as the exercise of control that rests on the willing compliance of subordinates with the directives of their superiors. . . . Formal authority is legitimated by values that have become institutionalized in legal contracts and cultural ideologies, and the social constraints that demand compliance persuade the entire society.[31]

On the other hand, leadership involves exerting influences that go beyond this and, "is legitimated by the common values that emerge in a group, particularly by the loyalty the superior commands among group members, and group norms and sanctions enforce compliance."[32]

Administration is the other term which is confused with leadership possibly because school administration is often viewed in terms of offering instructional leadership.[33] The behaviors appropriate for each of these roles are mutually exclusive by definition. The administrator is concerned with maintaining the organization, protecting the status quo, keeping its interrelated parts functioning smoothly, and monitoring the orderly procedures that have been established to get things accomplished. The leader

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[30]Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 203. [31]Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 143.

[32]Loc. cit.

[33]e.g. E. M. Bridges, "Instructional Leadership: A Concept Re-Examined," in W. G. Walker et al, Explorations in Educational Administration (Brisbane, Australia: University of Queensland Press, 1973).

has to achieve a balance between maintaining the organization and the need to give it new goals or new ways of achieving its present goals.

As Owens says about school organization: "Administration is concerned with the smooth operation of an organization."[34] In the school, the administrator's role is to utilize the established procedures to help the organization achieve its goals. When they are planning, coordinating, regulating, scheduling and programming, they are behaving like executives. Administration involves the processes which help the organization operate its mechanisms for achieving its goals. Owens, in reference again to school administration, says: "The administrator is a stabilizing force who clarifies its goals and helps people play effective roles in achieving these goals."[35]

Leaders, in contrast, perform a different role. They initiate change, are catalysts or "disruptive of the existing state of affairs."[36] Administrators are more governed by the ultimate mission of the organization, of maintaining the organization, whereas leaders are probably more governed by cosmopolitan personal goals and are change-agents.

Ideally, the person holding executive responsibility should combine all four functions, but this is usually not the case. Hall makes an interesting point when he states that:

> It is after the appointment or election that the interaction process takes over. This process will determine whether or not the person in the position, with his individual characteristics, will become a leader.[37]

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[34] R. G. Owens, Organizational Behavior in Schools (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1970), p. 126.

[35] Ibid., p. 127.

[36] Lipnam, op. cit., p. 122.

[37] R. H. Hall, Organizations, Structure and Process (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972), p. 248.

After there has been accession to a position of authority, time will determine whether a person becomes a leader or not. Some writers restrict the use of the term leader to those people who obtain the role of influencer as a consequence of group decision or endorsement. The essential difference is with respect to the source of the power being exercised. Leadership involves the ability of the leader to exert influences over and above meeting the minimal requirements demanded by compliance with the authority of the office. As Gibb has noted, "There is almost general agreement in the literature of the last few years that leadership is to be distinguished, by definition, from domination, or headship."[38] Headship and leadership are different things--the person who has no influence may be head of an organization; he becomes a leader as he gains influence. For example, Dalton, Lawrence and Lorsch[39] found that in the high performance organizations, the individuals primarily involved in conflict resolution had influence based to a large extent on their perceived competence and knowledge (leadership) whereas similar persons in less effective organizations drew their power solely from their position or from their control over scarce resources (headship).

The foregoing would seem to have been rather a lengthy introduction to the topic under discussion. However, this has been done deliberately for two reasons. Firstly, to emphasize the growing awareness of leadership as a group function and its complexity. Secondly, to demonstrate the confusion

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[38] C. A. Gibb, "Leadership," in G. Lindzey (ed.), Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol. II (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1954), p. 882.

[39] Dalton, Lawrence and Lorsch, "Organizational Design and Structure," p. 11.

that has marked much organizational thought on the topic. Indeed, it is necessary to point out that the administrator or person in authority is not necessarily a leader. Organizational thought has only recently allowed for this distinction which has become very much a part of the emerging view of leadership. As Lipham noted, "Studies dealing with leadership of organizations usually have failed to distinguish between leadership and administration."[40]

A number of writers such as Ivancevich[41] and Owens[42] noted that there have been three main approaches to leadership viz., the trait approach, the behavioral approach, and the situational approach. So, in this section of the paper, each of these approaches will be discussed in turn.

II. Three Major Approaches to Leadership

(1) The Trait Approach. Many of the early studies of leadership in the 1940's and 1950's focused on the traits of the leader. This approach asserts that there are a finite number of identifiable traits or characteristics which can distinguish between effective and ineffective leaders. As one recent writer stated:

> Students of influence have long sought to discover the factors associated with high influence. An older traditional approach has been to examine the personality traits of top leaders on the assumptions that there was some quality or capacity of the individual himself that made him a leader. Extensive research evidence has failed to show any significant relationship of this type.[43]

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[40] Lipham, op. cit., p. 125.

[41] Ivancevich, op. cit., p. 274.

[42] Owens, op. cit., p. 120.

[43] D. E. Tope et al, The Social Sciences View of School Administration (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1965), p. 125.

A number of other researchers such as Gouldner,[44] Selznick,[45] Hamachek,[46] Gross and Herriott,[47] Hellriegel and Slocum[48] and Ivancevich[49] also are critical of this approach; e.g., Gouldner says that "the hypothesis that there are some traits common to all leaders is presently unfashionable."

In 1948 Stogdill found, in analyzing 124 research studies on leadership, that: (1) The average person who occupies a position of leadership exceeds the average member of a group in the following respects: intelligence, scholarship, dependability in exercising responsibilities, activity and social participation, and socioeconomic status; and (2) the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in the leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader.[50]

However, as Faber and Shearron claim:

> Despite the fact that Stogdill found positive correlation between leadership and several traits, these correlations are generally fairly low and of questionable value in contributing to an understanding of leadership.[51]

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[44] A. W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper and Row, 1950), p. 32.

[45] P. Selznick, Leadership in Administration (Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1957), p. 22.

[46] D. Hamachek, "Leadership Styles, Decision Making and the Principal," The National Elementary Principal, Vol. 5, 5 (April, 1966), p. 27.

[47] N. Gross and R. Herriott, Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Enquiry (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 10.

[48] D. Hellriegel and J. Slocum, Organizational Behavior: Contingency Views (New York: West Publishing Co., 1976), pp. 296-298.

[49] Ivancevich, op. cit., pp. 276-277.

[50] R. M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership, A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, 25, 1948, pp. 35-71.

[51] C. Faber and G. Shearron, Elementary School Administration (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), p. 310.

The traits approach represents a simplified approach to a very complex field. A leader's role as a decision maker or change agent is more involved than a simple listing of desirable traits. As Gibb[52] and Myers[53] have pointed out, the literature on correlates of leadership provides little support for the hypothesis that one or more traits are common to all kinds of leaders. However, this does not imply that among individuals who serve as formal leaders of the same type of organizations, traits may not be uncovered that are associated with variation in their leadership. Jennings[54] and Lane et al[55] in support of the above stated that fifty years of study have failed to find one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders from non-leaders. Pierce and Merrill likewise concluded that "perhaps one of the results of the research is the conclusion drawn that the study of personal characteristics, per se, is only one aspect of the study of leadership."[56]

However, there has been some recent research which has tended to re-awaken interest in the relationship between the possession of certain individual traits and leadership behavior. Ghiselli,[57] for example,

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[52]Gibb, op. cit., p. 889.

[53]R. M. Myers, "The Development and Implications of a Conception for Leadership Education" (unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1954.

[54]E. Jennings, "The Anatomy of Leadership," Management of Personnel Quarterly, Vol. 1, No. 1 (Autumn, 1961).

[55]W. R. Lane, R. G. Corwin and W. G. Monohan, Foundations of Educational Administration: A Behavioral Analysis (London: MacMillan, 1967), p. 306.

[56]T. M. Pierce and E. C. Merrill, "The Individual and Administrative Behavior," in R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg (eds.), Administrative Behavior in Education (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 332.

[57]E. E. Ghiselli, "Managerial Talent," American Psychologist, Vol. 18, 10 (October, 1963), pp. 631-641.

made two basic assumptions in his conception of organizational leadership:

(i) There are a number of trait characteristics which are related to leadership behavior in formal organizations.

(ii) The demands of an organization for leadership are common to all leadership positions.

He hypothesized five traits--intelligence, supervisory ability, initiative, self-assurance and individuality, which he found to be significantly correlated with management performance and organizational level. His findings have particular relevance to managerial behavior and leadership, and may become a fruitful line of research to pursue.

Lipham,[58] a further example, investigated the relationship between personality variables and performance in 84 principals in the midwest of U.S.A. He found that those principals who were rated more effective by superintendent of schools and members of the central office staff, scored significantly higher than did the principals who were rated less effective.

Studies such as the foregoing are subject to numerous limitations such as: lack of adequate terminology for relating psychological or personal characteristics to organizational phenomena, and the extent to which the data are generalizable. As Lipham states, "The recent emphasis on commonalities in all fields of administration notwithstanding, care must be exercised when generalizing from situation to situation and from one leadership role to another."[59] Though specific traits may be found to be associated with specific situations, there does not appear to be a given number of traits which are universally applicable.

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[58] J. M. Lipham, "Personal Variables of Effective Administrators," Administrator's Notebook, IX (September, 1960), pp. 1-4.

[59] Lipham, op. cit., in Griffiths, p. 129.

It may be argued that some traits are necessary for effective leadership, but in themselves are not a guarantee of success. As Bavelas has said, "When specific situational patterns are different from organization to organization, one cannot say what personal traits will lead to acknowledged leadership."[60]

The research on situational theory tends to question the validity of the trait approach which appears to break down when the context of leadership changes. If there are particular characteristics necessary for each situation and if these vary as the situation varies, it is unlikely that there are very many traits uniformly applicable to all situations. However, it has also been suggested that such criticism may be misdirected. It does seem as though there are some personal characteristics associated with leader effectiveness, and that these operate in a relatively general fashion.[61] Ghiselli has emphasized that the situational demand for behavior is important but we must not forget the person involved. He is not just a reflection of the social situation, but rather brings his own unique set of characteristics to each situation. It is these characteristics that effect his behavior. It is clear that these relationships are contingent upon a situation, but leadership cannot be exclusively a function of the situation.[62]

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[60] A. Bavelas, "Leadership: Man and Function," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 4, 1960, p. 494.

[61] E. P. Hollander and J. W. Julian, "Contemporary Trends in the Analysis of Leadership Process," Psychological Bulletin, 1969, pp. 387-397.

[62] C. Gibb, "Leadership," in G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (eds.), The Handbook of Social Psychology (2nd ed.; Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969), pp. 205-283.

Eventual dissatisfaction with the trait approach resulted in a view of leadership which attempted to account for more than just the qualities of the leader and so the focus shifted from the characteristics of the individual to an examination of what leaders actually do and how they do it--behavioral theories of leadership which will be considered in the next section.

(2) Behavioral Approach. Various writers such as Owens,[63] Halpin[64] and Lipham[65] approached the study of leadership from a behavioral approach. Owens' comment is representative:

> Behavioral studies focus on observed behavior and although they recognize that people involved in leadership do possess personal traits and are functioning in a situation, these studies avoid making flat statements about casual relationships. Their emphasis is on observed behavior in certain situations.[66]

According to this approach, leadership is viewed as being a two-way process and one of interaction involving shared experiences. As Hall says:

> The emergent position is that while different situations demand different forms of leadership and thus generally different individuals, particular skills and behaviors will be called in for each different situation. . . . To the ideas that have been already stated, the important element of interaction between leaders and followers must be added. The leader influences his followers in the interaction process and their reactions, of course, have an impact on his own behavior.[67]

Unlike trait theories, the behavioral approach focused on leader effectiveness, not the emergence of an individual as a leader. Some

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[63] Owens, op. cit.

[64] A. W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1959).

[65] Lipham, op. cit., p. 133.

[66] Owens, op. cit., p. 120.

[67] Hall, op. cit., p. 247.

detailed comments will now be made of this current view of leadership theory from a number of different perspectives.

Behavioral scientists have reached a good deal of consensus regarding the validity of the proposition that an effective leader must be characterized by two styles of leadership, viz. supportive and instrumental leadership.

Halpin and Winter,[68] using the work of Hemphill and Coon,[69] delineated two significant dimensions of leadership--initiating structure and consideration. The former refers to the leader's function in motivating the group to fulfill the organizational goals of task-achievement whereas the latter refers to leader behavior which shows awareness of group member's needs, of supportiveness, of warmth in personal relationships, when making decisions.

Leadership studies at the University of Michigan also identified two distinct styles of leadership--job centered leadership style and employee centered leadership style.[70] Bales found that there were two separate leadership roles in small task groups attempting to solve problems--the task leader and the social leader.[71] Barnard used the terms effectiveness (task accomplishment) and efficiency (satisfaction of personal needs) to describe leadership style.[72]

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[68] A. W. Halpin and B. J. Winter, "A Factorial Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions" in R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons (eds.), Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957).

[69] J. Hemphill and A. E. Coons, "Development of the L.B.D.Q.," in Stogdill and Coons, op. cit.

[70] R. Likert, The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

[71] A. R. Bales, "In Conference" in A. Etzioni (ed.), Reading in Modern Organizations (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969), p. 149.

[72] C. I. Barnard, The Function of the Executive (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966), pp. 5-7.

Halpin[73] discovered, in a study of leadership behavior of aircraft commanders, that effective leaders were those who scored high on both dimensions. Hemphill[74] came to similar conclusions in his study of administrators in a liberal-arts college. Numerous other studies have isolated dimensions similar to those proposed by Halpin and Winter. In the educational setting, Getzels and Guba[75] have distinguished between the "nomothetic" and "idiographic" styles of leadership behavior; the former places emphasis upon organizational role, the latter upon individual need dispositions. Other writers such as Katz and Kahn[76] and Hall[77] also support this "dual leadership" approach. Hall stated that "leadership is actually a differentiated process, with task or instrumental activities rather clearly separated from socio-emotional activities."[78]

In two recent studies of school principals, consideration and initiating structure were substantially correlated.[79] Blake and Mouton[80] have evolved a

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[73] A. W. Halpin, "The Leader Behavior and Effectiveness of Aircraft Commanders" in Stogdill and Coons, op. cit.

[74] J. K. Hemphill, "Patters of Leadership Beavhior Associated with Administrative Reputation in the Department of a College," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLVI, November, 1955, pp. 385-401.

[75] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV, Winter, 1957, pp. 435-438.

[76] Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 311.

[77] Hall, op. cit.

[78] Hall, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

[79] D. Kunz and W. Hoy, "Leader Behavior of Principals and the Professional Zone of Acceptance of Teachers," Educational Administration Quarterly, 12 (1970), pp. 49-64; and C. Miskel, Public School Principals' Leader Style, Organizational, Situational and Effectiveness: Final Report, National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare Grant No. NE-500-3-0141, October, 1974.

[80] R. Blake and J. Mouton, The Management Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964), p. 10.

conceptualization of leadership style which they have labelled the managerial grid. They postulate two basic dimensions of leadership--concern for production and concern for people.

Hence, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that there are two basic leadership styles, one a supportive style, the other an instrumental style. However, as Bales[81] found, these two leadership styles appeared sometimes in the person of the individual leader but more often in separate people. Another view is that proposed by Getzels and others[82] who delineated three leadership styles viz. normative or task, personal or socio-emotional, and transactional, a combination of the other two. Also, Reddin[83] has devised a three-dimensional theory of managerial effectiveness which builds on the two major dimensions of leadership and adds a third--an effectiveness dimension. In this case, the behavioral determinants are the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. The task of the leader is that of mediating between these two sets of behavior--eliciting forces so as to produce behavior which is at once organizationally useful and individually satisfying. Hence, this again shows the bi-partitie concept of leadership and its integrative function as suggested by Getzels and Guba.

Another aspect of organizational behavior which is related to the above is the organizational dilemma, well-established by researchers, of the

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[81] R. F. Bales, "Task Roles and Social Roles in Problem-Solving Groups," in E. Maccoby et al (eds.), Readings in Social Psychology (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958), pp. 437-447.

[82] J. W. Getzels, J. M. Lipham and R. F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process (New York: Harper and Row, 1968).

[83] W. J. Reddin, Managerial Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

conflicting needs of the organization and those of the individual. Argyris[84] is a theorist who has examined this organizational conflict at length. He believes that it is the function of leadership to resolve this inevitable dilemma, or at least reduce it in some way.

Getzels and Guba,[85] using a social process approach administrative theory, took this concept and held that within any social system the individual is confronted by two sets of behavior--the nomothetic dimension which refers to the behavior demanded by the role the individual plays in meeting institutional expectations; and the idiographic dimension which refers to the behavior the individual exhibits in meeting his own need-dispositions. On many occasions role conflict occurs because these behaviors are diametrically opposed. Hence the leadership task becomes extremely important then because as Walker stated, "The science of administration is obviously a science of managing behavior."[86]

So, from the above, it appears that the search for the "ideal" leader style is fruitless as leadership is a far more complex and variable process than previously thought, and it is impossible to ascertain at present what proportion of the two dimensions will make the best "mix" for leadership.

In addition there is evidence to show that style or behavior of leaders change from situation to situation.[87] Also, other situational factors, such

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[84]C. Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley, 1964).

[85]Getzels and Guba, op. cit.

[86]W. G. Walker, Theory and Practice in Educational Administration (Brisbane, Australia: University of Queensland Press, 1970), p. 96.

[87]W. Hill, "Leadership Style: Rigid or Flexible," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (1973), pp. 35-42.

as group cohesiveness, characteristics of group members, na ure of the task may all combine and cause leaders to behave differently at different times. As Korman stated:

> Despite the fact that "consideration and initiating structure" have become almost bywords in American industrial psychology, it seems apparent that very little is now known as to how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which affect such predictions.[88]

In the next section of the paper, the situational approach will be considered.

III. Situational Approach

Pfiffner and Sherwood[89] stated that since 1945 much of the emphasis on leadership studies has been placed on probing the situational aspects that surround the exercise of leadership. By the 1950's, this view of the differential context of leadership ultimately evolved into the situational approach which took firm hold of the field by the 1950's.[90] This idea has been repeatedly stressed in the literature by such researchers as Gibb,[91] Seeman[92] and Gross and Herriott.[93] These introductory comments lead to a consideration of what the situational approach is.

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[88] A. K. Korman, "Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Organizational Criteria--A Review," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 19, No. 4 (Winter, 1966).

[89] J. M. Pfiffner and F. P. Sherwood, Administrative Organization (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960), p. 356.

[90] A. W. Gouldner (ed.), Studies in Leadership (New York: Harper, 1950).

[91] Gibb, op. cit., pp. 913-914.

[92] M. Seeman, Social Status and Leadership: The Base of the School Executive (Columbus: Columbus Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Ohio State University, 1960), pp. 2-5.

[93] Gross and Herriott, op. cit., p. 9.

The situational approach is concerned with examining the characteristics of the group in which the leader is found and the situation with which the group must deal.

This theory holds that leadership can be more appropriately explained in terms of the interaction between the leader, and other variables present in the work situation. Such a theory would follow logically from the trait approach to leadership, by taking into account the qualities of the leader himself, and the characteristics of the group-task situation in which he operates. As McKague stated in a recent article:

> Situational theory does not maintain that personal qualities of leadership are unimportant; neither does it state that situations automatically produce the leadership required. But it does maintain that personal qualities must be examined in the context of a particular situation.[94]

It is held that the type of leader and the style of leadership required for one situation is quite different from another. A different style of leadership, with different skills and abilities is needed, as a situation changes from calm to crisis, or from simplicity to complexity.

The leadership research conducted within this perspective does not seek to identify universal characteristics, but is directed towards discovering the situational variables that allow certain kinds of leadership behavior to become effective. Major situational variables are said to include such things as:

(i) Organizational factors.

(ii) Member's needs, expectations and attitudes.

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[94] T. R. McKague, "L.P.C.--A New Perspective on Leadership, Educational Administration Quarterly, University Council for Educational Administration, Autumn, 1970, p. 2.

(iii) The leader's characteristics.

(iv) Nature of the tasks facing both the leader and group members.

The major proposition associated with this theory is that the leadership behavior is multi-dimensional. The research is substantial, and therefore reference can only be made to a few pertinent studies. Perhaps the most extensive comparison among groups differ and thereby measure the impact of the leader, has been set forth by Hemphill.[95] He found that two of the fifteen dimensions correlated highly with leadership adequacy. Stogdill[96] (1956) conducted a survey of 470 officers from 47 different organizations, and found that eight leader profiles could be differentiated, each being typical of a different kind of management position. Other studies, such as those by Vroom and Mann,[97] Schutz,[98] Likert[99] and Guest[100] have attempted to show a relationship between particular styles of leader behavior, and specific situational factors.

O'Brien is quite critical of situational theories of organizational leadership generally because he says that:

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[95] J. K. Hemphill, Situational Factors in Leadership (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1949).

[96] Stogdill, op. cit.

[97] V. Vroom and F. Mann, "Leader Authoritarionism and Employee Attitudes," Personnel Psychology, Vol. 13, 1960, pp. 125-139.

[98] W. C. Shutz, "What Makes Groups Productive?" Human Relations, 8, 1955, pp. 429-465.

[99] R. Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961)

[100] R. H. Guest, Organizational Change: The Effect of Successful Leadership (London: Tavistock, 1962).

> . . . most of them fail to define specifically the set of organizational and personality variables they deal with and so are unable to describe fully the way in which such variables interact in determining organizational productivity and worker satisfaction.[101]

He mentioned that the theories of Bennis,[102] Schutz[103] and Fiedler[104] were exceptions as organizational and personality dimensions, and the manner in which they interacted, were defined specifically. Space will preclude a discussion of all of these theories and so Fiedler's work has been chosen as this is highly representative of situational theory.

Fiedler undertook twenty-five major studies over twelve years in a large number of comparable groups. Briefly the theory states that the effectiveness of a particular style of leadership for group performance will be contingent on the favorability of the situation in which the leader finds himself. According to the leadership Contingency Model developed by Fiedler, there are three major situational variables which would determine the degree of favorability of the situation for the leader's style. These were:

(i) Group Atmosphere--the degree of acceptance given to the leader by the group.

(ii) Leader Position Power--the formal authority which the leader's power provided.

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[101] G. E. O'Brien, "Leadership in Organizational Settings," in F. M. Trusty (ed.), Administering Human Resources (California: McCutchan Publishing Corp, 1971), p. 150.

[102] W. G. Bennis, "Leadership Theory and Administrative Behavior: The Problem of Authority," Administrative Science Quarterly, 4, 1959-60, pp. 259-301.

[103] W. C. Schutz, op. cit.

[104] F. E. Fiedler, "A Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness," in L. Berkowitz (ed.), Advances in Experimental Social Psychology (New York: Academic Press, 1964), pp. 150-191.

(iii) Task Structure--the clarity or ambiguity of the task to be performed.

Fiedler defines the favorability of a situation as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over his group."[105]

Two perception instruments called Assumed Similarity between Oppositions (A.S.O.) and the Least Preferred Co-Workers (L.P.C.) were developed to measure a discriminating leader attitude which was associated with high group performances when the situation was either favorable or unfavorable. When a situation was only moderately favorable, a more lenient or permissive attitude is associated with "good" group performance.

Specifically the model predicts that low L.P.C. leaders (directive) will be most effective when the situation is either very favorable (high group acceptance, considerable position power, straight forward task) or very unfavorable in terms of these variables. When the leader has everything is his favor, he can afford to be controlling and managing; when he has little in his favor, he has nothing to lose if he adopts a directive approach. High L.P.C. leaders (permissive), the model predicts will be most effective in all types of situations. Concerning strategies of leadership, Fiedler says:

> In as much as L.P.C. or A.S.O. are measures of interpersonal attitudes, leaders can, of course, be trained to modify these attitudes. A high L.P.C. leader with poor group member relations, an unstructured task, and low position power, should first improve his interpersonal relations.[106]

Fiedler argues for training in appropriate leader behavior, and if the total situation is examined it should be possible for the trained person

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[105] F. E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 13.

[106] Ibid., pp. 184-185.

to select the "right mix" of leadership styles for optimum effectiveness.

Before leaving this section of the paper, it will be appropriate to discuss some of the difficulties associated with the situational approach. It is obvious that further advances in this leadership theory appear to depend largely on the need for further empirical research guided by significant abstractions and appropriate strategies. This approach is marked by certain conceptual problems which stand in need of solution and these are listed briefly:

(i) Definition of sets of organizational and personality dimensions which are comprehensive, economical and precise.

(ii) Precise methods of representing relationships between sets of structural dimensions must be constructed.

(iii) Structural variables must be distinguished from, yet be related to, process variables.

(iv) A systematic analysis of types of organizational and group tasks must be devised.[107]

A number of research studies, conducted in a variety of settings, to validate Fiedler's model, have identified a number of serious shortcomings such as:

(1) A concern about what L.P.C. really measures.

(2) A lack of evidence to support situational cell predictions.

(3) The relationship between the situational variables and the leader is not considered by the model.

(4) The unidimensional concept that leadership style was either task oriented or employee oriented.[108]

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[107] O'Brien, op. cit., p. 152.

[108] For example see G. Graen, J. Orris and K. Alvares, "Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness: Some Experimental Results," Journal of Applied Psychology, June, 1971, pp. 196-201; J. McMahon, "The Contingency Theory: Logic and Method Revisited," Personnel Psychology, December, 1972, pp. 697-710;

In summary, despite these criticisms, Fiedler's contingency model has proved to be a major addition to the study of leadership because it was one of the first approaches to leadership that included situational factors within its theoretical framework.

House's path goal theory is another situational approach to leadership that is based on the interactions of leadership style and the situational variables of subordinate characteristics and the characteristics of the work environment.[109] This model views the leader's style in four dimensions rather than the one dimension proposed by Fiedler. It also details the specific interactions between leader behavior and the situation factors. Major criticisms of the model have focused on the growing complexity of the theory and the limitation of the theory to adequately discuss the aspect of performance.

These comments conclude this part of the paper; in the next section some emerging views of leadership will be considered.

IV. Emerging Views of Leadership

As the study of leadership seems to be taking a new direction, some possible emerging views of leadership will be considered in this section of the paper.

Leadership is being viewed by many writers as a change agent, as was discussed earlier in this paper when the distinction between leadership, administration, management and authority was drawn.

L. Larson and K. Rowland, "Leadership Style and Cognitive Complexity," Academy of Management Journal, 1974, pp. 36-45; and J. Stinson and L. Tracy, "Some Disturbing Characteristics of the L.P.C. Score," Personnel Psychology, 1974, pp. 477-485.

[109] R. J. House, "A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, 1971, pp. 321-332.

Leadership was characterized as initiating change and as an important part of organizational behavior. There seems to be a growing concern for organizational change and development through leadership, e.g. Selznick[110] concludes his book by devoting a section on responsible and creative leadership whose purpose is "institution-building, the reworking of human and technogical materials to fashion an organism that embodies new and enduring values." Hall also expresses a similar view when he says that:

> Our view of leadership involves what a person does above and beyond the basic requirements of his position. It is the persuasion of individuals and innovativeness in ideas and decision making that differentiates leadership from the sheer possession of power.[111]

In the educational setting, Bridges[112] who, on reviewing the four current views of instructional leadership--those of the principal as evaluator, helper, integrator and designer--instead suggests that the leadership function of the principal should be one of experimenter. Enns[113] echoes this view by claiming that the principal should be an educational statesman who emphasizes creativity, innovation and help others to understand more fully their own roles. Hence, the educational leader's task is becoming more one of initiating change to facilitate better teaching.

A second manifestation of a possible emerging view of leadership is a concern to include extra-organizational variables--the relationship of the leader to the larger social structure and environment of which the

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[110] Selznick, op. cit., pp. 152-153.

[111] Hall, op. cit.

[112] E. M. Bridges, "Instructional Leadership: A Concept Re-Examined," in W. G. Walker et al, op. cit., pp. 208-218.

[113] F. Enns, "Rating Teaching Effectiveness: The Function of the Principal," in W. G. Walker et al, op. cit., p. 223.

organization is a part. Silverman[114] claims that organization research fails to begin with the construction of hypotheses which related to both internal and external factors. The environment is of fundamental importance to organizations with regard particularly to the technology of the organization as this vitally affects leadership and total managerial functions. For example, Lawrence and Lorsch,[115] Perrow[116] and others have done major studies in this area. Obviously, systems theory is very applicable in this area of research.

A third possible aspect of this emerging view of leadership is the development of leadership from a change concept to the management of conflict by integrative measures to produce synergy. For example, Dalton and others[117] found that in the effective organization there was more a tendency to confront conflict and stimulate integration of group efforts through synergy. As Hampden and Turner stated, "Synergistic balance is best achieved by an egalitarian dialogue between the persons involved in the relationship."[118] Synergy is the creation of the whole through the processes of differentiation and integration; differentiation being the differences in cognitive and emotional orientations among organizational members; and integration being the quality of the state of collaboration

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[114]D. Silverman, The Theory of Organization (London: Heinemann, 1970), p. 166.

[115]P. R. Lawrence and J. W. Lorsch, Organizations and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration (Cambridge, 1967).

[116]C. Perrow, "A Framework for the Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations," American Sociological Review, Vol. 32, No. 2, April, 1967.

[117]G. W. Dalton, P. R. Lawrence and J. W. Lorsch, Organizational Structure and Design (Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1970), p. 7.

[118]Hampden, and C. Turner, "Synergy as the Optimization of Differentiation by the Human Personality," in Lawrence and Lorsch, op. cit., p. 192.

amongst members. These two processes are mutually opposed and the leadership role in this situation is to develop effective integrative devices to produce synergy.

The fourth and total manifestation of a possible emerging view of leadership is that leadership appears to be a matter of degree rather than a dichotomous distinction between leaders and followers. Mann supports this view by saying that:

> Leadership in the formal organization is a highly relative process with different combinations of supervisory-leadership skills and practices being required at different levels of supervision in the same organization and at different times in the life of an organization.[119]

On the one hand, the existence of a "task leader" as against a "socio-emotional leader" on the other hand, is too much a simplification--a theoretical categorization only. Indeed it may well be that leadership should be viewed as being a continuum. Katz and Kahn go a step further by stating that:

> Leadership is the emotion of influence on organizationally relevant matters by any member of the organization /and that/ those organizations in which influential acts are most widely shared are most effective.[120]

So, in some groups there may be more than one leader, and this tends to support the view that leadership is a matter of degree than an individual property of one member.

In the next section, an integrative model of leadership is presented.

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[119] F. C. Mann, "Toward an Understanding of the Leadership Role in the Formal Organization," in R. Duben et al, Leadership and Productivity (USA: Chander Publishing Co., 1965), p. 103.

[120] Katz and Kahn, op. cit., p. 332.

V. An Integrative Model of Leadership

In reviewing the three different approaches to leadership, it should be evident that there is no universally accepted approach to the study and practice of leadership in organizations. Even though certain factors that affect leadership have been identified, there is a need for an integrative model which attempts to synthesize the most important pieces of information and knowledge about leadership. In this section of the paper an integrative model of leadership developed by Ivancevich and others is presented.[121]

Ivancevich states that "the model, although not an exhaustive one, does identify certain important factors that should be considered and evaluated by behavioral scientists. . . ."[122] Using the leader as the focal point, two other factors are listed--the situation and the subordinate. Using the model, performance outcomes may be measured and the effects of feedback anticipated. The various factors and their relationship are summarized in the following diagram. You will notice that extra-organizational factors have been added to this diagram as the relationship of the leader to the larger social structure and environment of which the organization is a part is very important.

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[121] Ivancevich and others, op. cit., pp. 300-302.

[122] Ibid., p. 301.

AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

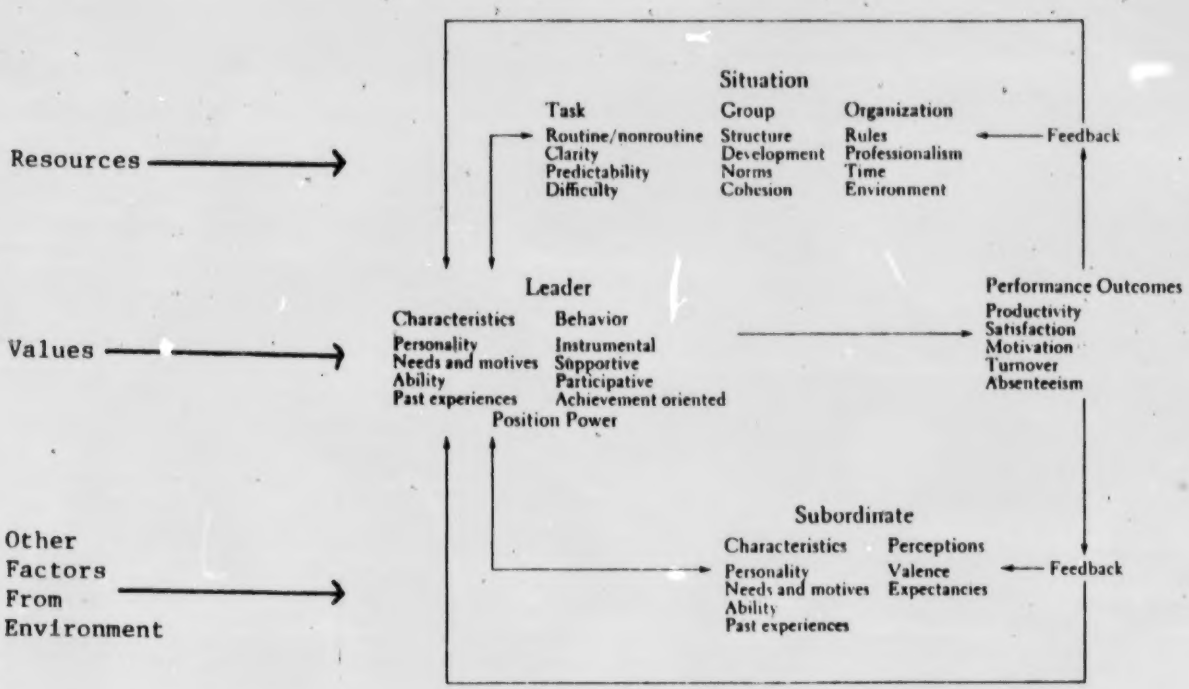

Diagram 1

Application to Higher Education

When the integrative model of leadership is applied to a post-secondary educational institution, the significant issue for the leader is to develop skill and ability in diagnosing and evaluating the many factors that impact on the leadership process. It is only through this ability to diagnose and evaluate that a leader can alter his behavior to achieve maximum effectiveness.

In an interesting article on how to choose a leadership pattern, Tannenbaum and Schmidt identify those forces which a leader should consider: (1) forces in the leader, (2) forces in the subordinates, and (3) forces in the situation.[123]

Among the important internal forces affecting a leader will be the following: his value system, his confidence in his subordinates, his own leadership inclinations, and his feelings of security in an uncertain situation. Forces which affect subordinates' behavior may include: needs for independence, readiness to assume responsibility for decision making, tolerance for ambiguity, interest in the problem, identification with organizational goals, level of expertise, and their expectations. Forces in the situation may include: type of organization, the effectiveness of the group, the nature of the problem, and the pressure of time. The leadership style which is adopted must be based upon a careful analysis and evaluation of these factors if it is to be successful. As Tannenbaum and Schmidt conclude:

> In summary, there are two implications in the basic thesis that we have been developing. The first is that the successful

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[123] R. Tannenbaum and W. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 36, No. 2 (1958), pp. 95-101.

> leader is one who is keenly aware of those forces which are most relevant to his behavior at any given time. He accurately understands himself, the individuals and group he is dealing with, and the company and broader social environment in which he operates. . . . /The second implication is that/ the successful leader is one who is able to behave appropriately in the light of these perceptions. . . .
>
> Thus, the successful manager of men can be primarily characterized neither as a strong leader nor as a permissive one. Rather, he is one who maintains a high batting average in accurately assessing the forces that determine what his most appropriate behavior at any given time should be and in actually being able to behave accordingly.[124]

This approach and model can be applied to any post-secondary institution--the outcome will depend on the mix of the three factors, viz. the situation, the leader, and the nature of the individuals within the institution. However, it is also evident that a leader must come to terms, in a specific way, with three additional important factors, viz. environmental factors, the degree of professionalism of staff, and the governance model of the institution. These factors are important as they will have an important effect on the leadership style which is used by those in leadership positions within the institutions.

A model which parallels this approach is Luthans and Stewart's contingency model which utilizes an open-systems paradigm of the organization. The model identifies relevant system variables which are placed into a taxonomical hierarchy of primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Primary system variables include: the environmental suprasystem, the resource subsystem, and management subsystem. Secondary variables derive from the interaction of subsets of the primary variables and include: situational variables, organization variables, and performance criteria.

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[124] Ibid., p. 101.

The tertiary system variables are generated by the interaction of secondary system variables and constituent primary system variables. The following diagram illustrates the contingency systems model developed by Luthans and Stewart.[125]

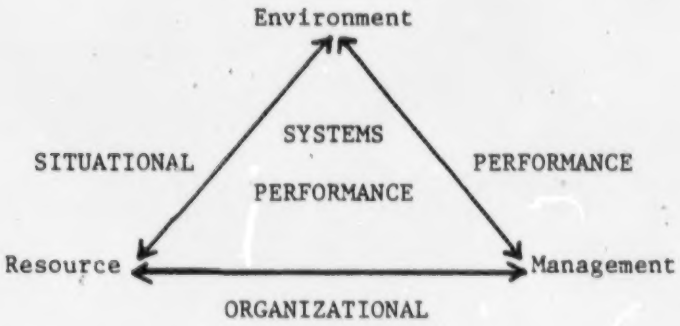

Diagram 2

Contingency Model of Organization

So, an analysis of these three levels of variables will be an important factor in determining the leadership style relevant to any post-secondary educational institution. Before leaving this section of the paper, it will be important to discuss the three factors mentioned above and their impact on the leadership process.

Educational institutions are facing an increasingly hostile environment and so this is a very important factor to analyze. External factors such as pressure of the government, reduced funds to higher education, criticism of higher education in the media, changing social values, declining student enrollments, will all have an influence on post-secondary institutions and their organizational structures. As Creswell claims:

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[125]F. Luthans and T. I. Stewart, "A General Contingency Theory of Management," Academy of Management Review, April, 1977, pp. 181-195.

Smaller enrollments will lead to less specialization; a hostile environment will lead to a more centralized administration; more external competition for a declining student population will lead to fewer "risks" about products; and in times of reduction, less intensive technology will result in less participation in decision making.[126] These factors will impact on the leadership process and will result in a certain leadership style, particularly if the leader is "reactive" rather than "anticipatory" in his approach.

Related to this is the kind of governance model which is operating in the institution. Baldridge and others claim that three models of academic governance have received widespread attention, viz. the bureaucratic model, the collegial model and the political model.[127] Although post-secondary institutions are not entirely overwhelmed by their environments, they are steadily losing ground and as this vulnerability increases, it will affect the governance pattern and prevailing leadership styles.[128]

A factor which has a strong influence on leadership in post-secondary institutions is the professional nature of academic staff.

Sociologists have made a number of important general observations about professional employees: professionals demand autonomy in their work, they have divided loyalties, there are strong tensions between professional values and bureaucratic expectations in an organization, and professionals

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[126] J. Creswell and T. Henry, "Handout for Unit on Structure in Post-Secondary Education" (University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Fall, 1979).

[127] G. L. Riley and J. V. Baldridge, Governing Academic Organizations (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1977), pp. 2-25.

[128] Ibid., p. 6.

demand peer evaluation of their work.[129] These characteristics have given rise to professional "communities" implying a common sense of identity, self-regulation, lifetime membership, shared values, a common language, clear social boundaries, and strong socialization of new members. However, post-secondary educational institutions have fragmented professional staffs as Clark claims:

> In the college or university . . . there are twelve, twenty-five, or fifty clusters of experts. The experts are prone to identify with their own disciplines, and the "academic profession" overall comes off a poor second. . . . The campus is not a closely knit group of professionals who see the world from one perspective. As a collection of professionals, it is decentralized, loose, and flabby.
>
> The principle is this: where professional influence is high and there is one dominant professional group, the organization will be integrated by the imposition of professional standards. Where the professional influence is high and there are a number of professional groups, the organization will be split by professionals.[130]

Consequently, there will be a distinct leadership style which is relevant to this kind of organization. As Baldridge and others have stated:

> All these characteristics undercut the traditional norms of bureaucracy, rejecting its hierarchy, control structure, and management procedures. As a consequence, we can expect a distinct management style in a professional organization.[131]

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to outline the various approaches to leadership that exist and to make some application to post-secondary educational

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[129] Burton R. Clark, "Faculty Organization and Authority," in T. Lunsford (ed.), The Study of Academic Administration (Boulder: Colorado Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education), pp. 37 and 51.

[130] Ibid.

[131] Riley and Baldridge, op. cit.

institutions. Perhaps the greatest pressing need is for research to be undertaken so that the various factors affecting the leadership process can be operationalized to allow accurate evaluation and predictability of outcomes.

There are possible trends of leadership which the writer has not considered because of the limitations of space imposed by the requirements of this paper. However, it appears that the study of leadership is developing along the lines of further enquiry into the structuring and functioning of groups, focusing attention on things that are happening (or appear to be happening), rather than on finding the supposed causes of observed behavior that characterized earlier approaches to the leadership studies. It would seem appropriate to present the following generalizations about leadership:

(1) Leadership is a shared process and a group function, being the product of interaction.

(2) Leadership does not result from position or status, but rather how a person behaves in an organization.

(3) Leadership positively changes organizational effectiveness and group activity.

(4) Leadership implies change.

(5) Most groups have more than one person occupying the leadership role--a leader in one situation will not automatically be a leader in another situation.

(6) Leadership cannot be structured in advance.

Although each of these generalizations is supported by some research, it must not be assumed that each generalization is completely valid. Leadership is an essential part of our social system and it will take much additional research to validate these and other generalizations.